



IPATIEV MONASTERY, KOSTROMA

From this monastery young Michael Romanov was called to be Tsar in 1613

THE STORY OF RUSSIA

By LEO PASVOLSKY

Editor of The Russian Review

MENTOR GRAVURES

THE DOUMA, PETROGRAD · THE NEVA PROSPECT,* PETROGRAD · THE KREMLIN, MOSCOW · KIEV, SHOWING THE PECHORSKAYA LAVRA · NIZHNY-NOVGOROD · RUSSIAN PEASANT HOME



IVAN THE TERRIBLE

Statue by Antokolsky. Original in bronze in the Alexander III Museum, Petrograd



THE story of Russia begins in the middle of the ninth century of the Christian era. During the three centuries that preceded, the Slavic tribes that laid the foundation of what is known as Russia today had been spreading through the Russian plain from their homes around the Carpathian Mountains in central Europe. They settled in many parts of the country, the most prosperous centers having sprung up in the region of the northern lakes. Here it was that Russia was born, when, according to the old tradition, the inhabitants of Novgorod (nov'go-rod) invited a Varingian (varin'gian) prince to rule over them. Thus the first Russian dynasty sprang from Rurik (ru'rick), who came to Russia at the invitation of the people and became the ruler of what was then Russia. The followers of Rurik, and later on his descendants, spread throughout the vast, forested plain. An important center

*Russian form of the name "Nevski Prospekt."

THE STORY OF RUSSIA

sprang up on the Dnieper (Russian, dnyep'er; English, nee'per or nee'pr), at the place where Kiev (kee'ev) now is. United under Prince Vladimir (vlah-dee'mir), during whose rule, in 988, Christianity was introduced in Russia, the different centers gradually split up into separate principalities, ruled by the descendants of Rurik. There were particularly three localities where early progress was made, and which later merged into what was destined to become the State of Russia. One was the Kiev principality, situated very favorably for trade with the Byzantine (biz'an-tin or bih-zan'tin) Empire. Then, in the northwest, important trading centers sprang up around Novgorod, which traded both with the interior of the country and with the German cities. Finally, to the east of Novgorod, there developed the Suzdal (sooz-doll') principality. Within this principality rose the city of Moscow, which later became a principality. It was the prince of Moscow that finally succeeded in uniting the different principalities into one body, and creating of them first the Grand Principality of Moscow, and finally the Russian Empire.



PETER THE GREAT

The Two Invasions of Russia

The process of Russia's development was arrested in the thirteenth century by the appearance in Europe of the Asiatic hordes of Tartars. They first appeared in Russia in 1223, and for a century and a half after that continued their efforts to overrun Europe. They succeeded in conquering practically all of the Russian principalities, numerous at that time, and engaged in constant wrangles and internal dissensions. The Tartars did not substitute their own rule for that of the Russian princes. They left them in their places, but made of them vassals of the Tartar Khan (kahn). The Russian princes ruled by virtue of patents received

from the Khan, and all that was expected of them was that they pay regularly and in full the tribute imposed upon them.

The fact that the Tartars left the Russians practically to their own resources as long as they paid the tribute was one of tremendous importance. While it is true, of course, that the invasion left very marked



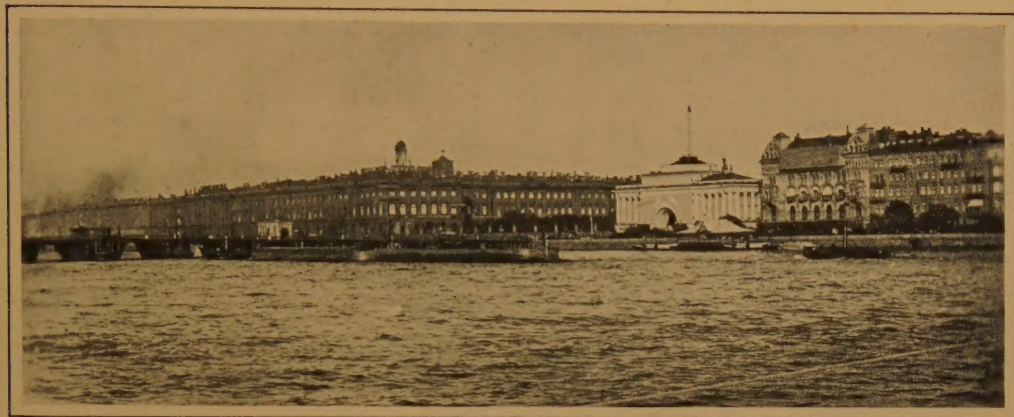
BELL TOWER AND CHURCH OF IVAN THE TERRIBLE, MOSCOW



CHURCH OF THE REDEEMER
MOSCOW

A beautiful piece of architecture

THE STORY OF RUSSIA



PETROGRAD

View from the Neva, showing the river and Winter Palace

Tartar strains in the blood of Russia, and that the whole life of Russia was profoundly influenced by the Tartars, the invasion was really conquest and not subjugation. The Russians finally succeeded in bringing their dispersed forces together, and in 1380, almost a century and a half after the invasion began, they defeated the Tartars on the field of Kulikovo (koo'lee-ko-vo), near the River Don. After this victory Europe definitely assumed the initiative in the struggle with the Asiatic invaders. For a whole century after that the Tartars still held their position in Russia, but torn by internal dissensions, in the face of the growing power of the integrating Russian State, they gave way, and toward the end of the fifteenth century, their rule in Russia was finally broken by the Grand Prince of Moscow, Ivan (ee-vahn') the Third.

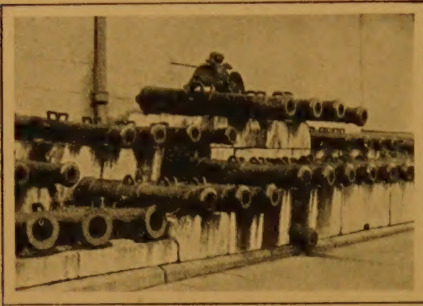


CATHERINE THE GREAT

Ivan married a Byzantine princess, the niece of the last Emperor of Byzantium. It was this marriage that gave the Russians their traditional claim to Constantinople. Ivan's reign was devoted almost exclusively to the consolidation of Russia. This work was continued by his son Vassily (vah-see'lee), and in even greater degree by his grandson, Ivan the Terrible. Despite his almost maniacal cruelty, Ivan IV was a great ruler. In his reign the boundaries of Russia were extended beyond the Ural Mountains, a large part of Siberia being conquered by a Cossack named Ermak. Ivan established commercial relations with England, and introduced numerous internal reforms.

He was succeeded by his son, Theodore, a weak and irresolute man. When Theodore died, the country was without an heir, as Ivan's second

THE STORY OF RUSSIA



NAPOLEON'S CANNON, KREMLIN, MOSCOW
Guns left by the French when they withdrew from
Moscow in 1812

son, Dimitry (dee-mee'tree), had been murdered at the instigation, so the story runs, of Ivan's son-in-law, Boris Godunov (bo-ris' go-doo-nov'). The crown was offered to Boris and he accepted it. But his reign was brought to an end by a popular insurrection headed by a "false Dimitry," a young monk, who declared himself the son of Ivan, miraculously delivered from the hands of the assassins. The impostor became Tsar, but he was also driven out, and a period of bloody internal dissensions set in.

During this period Russia was overrun by the Poles and the Lithuanians, who had frequently invaded the country, their king coveting the Russian crown. Moscow fell into their hands, and Russia was almost ready to receive the Polish king as her sovereign. But a popular movement, started by Kozma Minin (koz'mah mee'neen), a butcher of Nizhny-Novgorod (neezh'nee-nov'go-rod), and led by Prince Pozharsky (poz-hahr'see), succeeded in driving out the invaders. Then the young Michael Romanov (mik-ha-il' ro-mah'nov), remotely related to the old Rurik dynasty, was chosen Tsar. He ascended the throne in 1613.

Peter the Great

It was the fourth Tsar of the Romanov dynasty that left the first really important mark upon Russia's national history. Peter the First ascended the throne in 1682. But he was a boy then, and the country was ruled by his sister Sophia (so'fee-ah). During Sophia's rule, an "eternal peace" was declared with Poland, and two military expeditions were sent to the south in an unsuccessful attempt to conquer the Crimea (cry-mee'ah) from the Tartars who still held it. Peter continued this work, though his efforts were directed against the Turks, the allies of the Crimean Tartars. His first expedition was successful, and the important port of Azov (ah-zov'), on the Sea of Azov, fell into his hands.

In 1697 Peter went abroad and lived in Prussia, Holland, and England. In all of these countries he was a diligent student of every phase of their life, especially military, commercial and industrial. He went there incognito and worked as an ordinary workingman most of the time

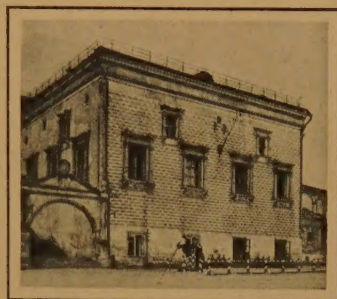


LARGEST BELL IN THE WORLD
Kremlin, Moscow. 26 feet in height, 68
feet in circumference, and weighing 200 tons

THE STORY OF RUSSIA

that he was there. Soon after his return to Russia, the great Russo-Swedish war began.

At that time the Swedes were in complete possession of the eastern coast of the Baltic Sea, most of which territory they formerly conquered from the Northern principalities of Russia. Peter began his great war in 1700, and continued it with changing success for twenty-one years. Russia's allies in this war were Poland and Denmark, while against her was Sweden, allied with Turkey. The really decisive battle of the war was fought at Poltava (poll-tah'vah), in southern Russia, in the year 1709. The Russians were successful in this battle, which marked the turn of Sweden's tide of successes.



HOUSE OF THE ROMANOV,
MOSCOW

The war, however, did not end until 1721, when Russia received the long coveted shores of the Baltic, including a part of Finland. Upon this territory the city of St. Petersburg (Petrograd) was built. Following the brilliant victories of the war Peter assumed the title of the Emperor of all Russia. The only other war of Peter's reign was another struggle with Turkey, which gave Russia a footing on the Caspian Sea.



CROSS, KREMLIN, MOSCOW

Marking spot where Grand Duke Sergius was blown to pieces by a bomb in 1904

The internal reforms of Peter's reign were manifold, and affected every phase of Russia's life. Peter introduced a stable administrative system, dividing the country into twelve governments, or provinces, and centralizing the governing power in the imperial hands. He introduced a new administrative system for the church, establishing the Holy Synod as its administrative organ. He reorganized the army, placing it on the footing of regular, recruited and paid troops, instead of the practically feudalistic system that Russia had before. He introduced social, educational, and economic reforms, notably in the system of taxation. Peter did much good for Russia, but it was he, too, who laid the foundations of the bureaucratic system that had brought Russia to colossal national disasters in 1854 and in 1905, and came very near, but a few months ago, to bringing Russia to the greatest disaster in the world's history.

Catherine the Great

During the thirty-two years that elapsed between the death of Peter the Great and the accession to the throne of Catherine the Great, Russia had six rulers, three of them women. But during these six reigns little was done to continue Peter's work. Catherine may be truly called Peter's heir, for she not only continued and extended the traditions established by him,

but introduced changes of her own. Catherine's reign, like that of Peter, was a mixture of excellent, far reaching reforms, and of very bad changes. Peter was completely dominated by the spirit of Prussia, and Catherine, herself a German princess, was swayed by the same spirit, despite her dabbling in the ideas of the radical French philosophers of the time—Diderot (dee-dro'), Voltaire (vol-tare') and others. The manner in which reforms were introduced by both of these rulers was entirely too iron handed, and for this reason the infiltration of the new ideas into the inner life of Russia was a slow, and, in many instances, unsuccessful process.

Catherine gave Russia a new system of local government and administration in the provinces. She aided education, and otherwise assisted the artistic and intellectual development of Russia. But, at the same time, it was in her reign that the system of serfdom reached the zenith of its development. Never before did the owner of the serf enjoy such complete and tremendous power over his human property as he acquired at this time. Great as was Catherine's work for the upper classes, the majority of the people groaned under her rule.

In her foreign ventures Catherine was quite successful. She conquered and subjugated the Crimea, thus realizing a part of Peter's dream of gaining possession of the Black Sea and of Constantinople. She fought two wars with Turkey, the ultimate object of which was the conquest of Constantinople, but the successes in these wars were only partial. During Catherine's reign Poland, weakened by internal dissensions, was partitioned between Russia, Prussia and Austria.

First Half of the Nineteenth Century

The nineteenth century was ushered in for Russia with the accession to the throne of Alexander I, the grandson of Catherine. He succeeded his father, Paul I, who had been murdered by the court party, with the consent of Alexander. The first half of Alexander's reign was dominated by Europe's titanic struggle with the great Corsican, Napoleon Bonaparte, whose French armies made a whole continent tremble. Russia took an active



THE HERMITAGE GALLERY IN PETROGRAD



CIRCASSIAN SOLDIER

THE STORY OF RUSSIA



IMPERIAL SUMMER HOME
Palace of Peterhof and avenue of fountains

part in this struggle. During the first years of Alexander's reign, Russia's ally in the war with Napoleon was Austria. But the Russian-Austrian troops were badly defeated at Austerlitz. In 1807 the famous Treaty of Tilsit was signed between Russia and France. Alexander recognized all the changes made in Europe by Napoleon, and the two emperors signed an agreement providing for a defensive and offensive league. A year later Russia waged a war on Sweden as an ally of Napoleon. Through this war most of Finland came under Russian rule. In the meantime, for six years, from 1806 to 1812, Russia fought a long war with Turkey,

the outcome of which was indecisive, as it came to an end when Napoleon began his invasion of Russia.

Despite the existence of the treaty of Tilsit, Russia and France could not be friends, for Russia stood in Napoleon's way toward the realization of his dream of a world empire. The struggle came in 1812, when Napoleon invaded Russia with an army made up of practically all the nationalities of Europe and numbering over half a million men. The French army entered Russia in June, 1812, and by September it was already in Moscow. But Napoleon found the city deserted and in flames. In the meantime, the Russian army, after the famous Borodino (bor-o-dee-no') battle, which gave Moscow to Napoleon, began to cut Napoleon's lines of communication with the west. Napoleon ordered a retreat. The Russians then began offensive operations, and the French armies were soon in full flight toward the western border. The expedition ended in disaster and sealed Napoleon's fate.

Alexander's reign came to an end in 1825, and he was succeeded by his brother, Nicholas I, who ascended the throne amid the bloody strife of Russia's first political revolution. The spirit that manifested itself in France in 1830, in England in 1832, and in other countries at some time during that period, led a group of thinking Russians to organize, with the aid of a part of the army, a revolutionary outbreak in December, 1825. Nicholas personally led the loyal troops against the



COSSACK HORSEMAN

revolutionary forces. The outbreak was put down, and some of Russia's best men of the time perished. Five years later Nicholas faced a Polish revolt, organized for the purpose of re-creating Poland, as an independent State. This revolt was put down, and Poland from an autonomous kingdom, as it was established by Alexander I, became five Russian provinces.

Thus beginning his reign, Nicholas, throughout the thirty years that he was the Emperor of Russia, continued to justify the title of "the international gendarme" that was given to him. His aim was to uphold monarchical rule wherever it was in peril. If it were not for the Polish revolt, Russian troops would have gone to France and Belgium in the thirties to quell the revolutions there. When uprisings began in Italy in 1847, Nicholas made a large loan to Austria and promised her troops. In 1849, he did send troops to Hungary to quell the revolution there, and refused reimbursement for the expenses incurred in fitting out this expedition. Within the country itself he maintained the same rigid forms of autocracy that he wanted to see in force throughout Europe. Under him the bureaucratic system reached the stage of complete isolation from the people.

Nicholas fought two wars against Turkey. The first one was in 1828, when Russia was victorious and obtained considerable concessions. The second was the Crimean War (1854-55), in which Turkey had for her allies practically the whole of Europe. During this war Nicholas died. It is a fairly well substantiated historic fact that he poisoned himself rather than see the defeat of all his hopes for occupying the most important position in the affairs of Europe.



HOME OF WEALTH, MOSCOW

The First Phase of the New Russia

Nicholas's son, Alexander II, brought the disastrous Crimean War to the finish. Russia's defeat was perhaps the greatest in her history, but the war awakened the country to the necessity of changes. The first two decades of the second half of the nineteenth century may be truly considered the first phase of the new Russia. The greatest of the reforms of this period came in 1861, when, by a manifesto, Alexander set free millions of serfs, and abolished forever within the bounds of the Russian Empire the institution of serfdom.

Alexander introduced numerous other reforms, fundamental and really far reaching. He established the beginnings of a system of self-government in the provinces. Municipalities received also what amounted to the beginnings of self-government. Russian laws, codified in the reign of Nicholas I, were radically reformed, and a most excellent system of judicial

THE STORY OF RUSSIA

procedure was introduced. The statutes of Alexander II are perhaps the best in the world's history; surely the most democratic. Universal military service was introduced, instead of obligatory service only for the lower classes, introduced by Peter. Advances were made in education, the status of the schools and the universities being much improved. During

Alexander's reign Russia waged several wars. After sixty years of constant warfare, the Caucasus was finally conquered in 1864. Turkestan, several other mid-Asiatic territories, as well as two large territories in the Far East, were annexed to Russia, partly through conquest and partly through peaceful negotiations. Alaska was sold to the United States in 1867. Toward the end of Alexander's reign Russia waged a war on Turkey (1877), in which she was brilliantly successful. But at the Congress of Berlin, held after the war, Russia was entirely outmanoeuvred by Prince Bismarck, and lost practically everything she had gained in the war.

Alexander was assassinated in March, 1881. The revolutionary spirit that was rising in Russia decided that by assassinating the Emperor the first step would be taken toward the real liberation of the country. But the forces of the revolution were hurled back by the reaction that set in with the accession to the throne of Alexander III. The years of Alexander's reign were perhaps the darkest in the whole of Russia's political history.

Alexander III followed a policy of nationalism in the narrow sense. He believed that all parts of Russia should become russified, and he applied this policy in Finland, Poland, the Caucasus and elsewhere. During Alexander's reign, nevertheless, Russia passed through the beginning of her real economic development. The economic vigor of the country demanded a field of application, and forced its way out despite all difficulties.

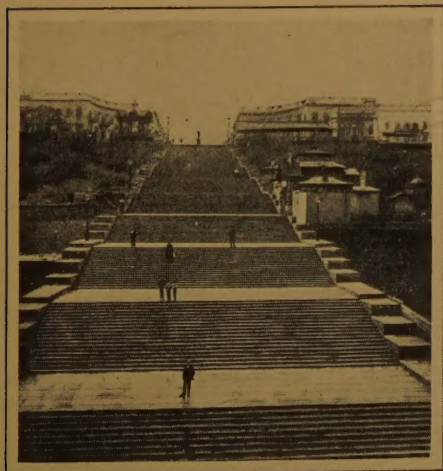
The Last Romanov

Alexander III died in 1894, and left the throne to his son, Nicholas II, who after ruling Russia for twenty-three years, through his abdication in March,



A STEAMER ON THE VOLGA

Type of boat used for transportation and passenger service



GREAT STAIRCASE AT ODESSA
Leading up from the harbor

THE STORY OF RUSSIA

1917, brought the Romanov dynasty to a close. Nicholas' reign began with a horrible incident. During his coronation at Moscow, the field of Khodynka (kho-dyn'kah), where the celebration was to take place, was so inefficiently prepared that in some places the ground caved in, thousands being crushed to death. It is said that this diabolic deed was engineered by the



TSAR, TSARINA AND FAMILY

Olga (1895), Tatiana (1897), Marie (1899), Anastasia (1901), Alexis (1904)

Tsar's uncle, the Grand Duke Sergius, who, ten years later, fell victim to a revolutionary bomb. The blood of this dreadful incident stained, as it were, the whole reign. With Nicholas, the German influences, which were obscured somewhat in the reign of Alexander III, who had married a Danish princess, again came to the front. Nicholas married a German princess, of the house of Hesse, and his whole reign was dominated by influences from Berlin. It was Germany that induced Russia to begin an expansion toward the Far East, and to seek an ice-free port on the Pacific Ocean. In this way Germany hoped to draw Russia's attention away from her age-long dream of acquiring Constantinople. Russia took part in putting down the Boxer uprising in China, and after this she acquired Port Arthur on the Yellow Sea. But her attempts at an imperialistic expansion in Korea aroused Japan, and led to the Russo-Japanese war, which ended disastrously for Russia in 1905. In the meantime the revolutionary spirit was growing. Things were brought to a head by the unsuccessful Japanese War. On October 30, 1905, the Tsar, disturbed by the impending cataclysm, issued his Constitutional Manifesto, by virtue of which a limited monarchy was officially established in Russia.

But the manifesto remained a dead letter, for two days after it was issued, a period of unprecedented administrative reaction and repression set in. For three years the bureaucracy tirelessly and ruthlessly conducted its work of "pacifying" Russia. During this period whole territories were declared under extraordinary laws and punitive expeditions sent there, the commander of the expedition being given the power of life and death over the inhabitants of his territory. For a whole decade after the revolution Russia continued to live in conditions of unimaginable arbitrary rule. Yet, despite everything, she continued her economic development.

Political circumstances, largely due to Germany's mishandling of things, led Russia into the Entente, and, in August, 1914, the colossal war

THE STORY OF RUSSIA

broke out. The war has had the profoundest influence imaginable upon Russia. It brought together the different classes of the people, and it isolated more than ever the bureaucracy from the people.

The war required the mobilization of all the resources of the country, their enlistment for the struggle, in an infinitely greater and more intimate degree than any other struggle in history. Yet the bureaucracy was near-sighted enough not to perceive the colossal and profound changes that this produced in the people. The bureaucracy was thoroughly inefficient, and, because of this, brought the country to the verge of complete economic disorganization. But it went still further. Believing that its safety from the rising tide of democracy lay in the support of Germany, it prepared for an act of unprecedented treason. Through its agents it was treating with Germany for a separate peace, thus contemplating the betrayal of both the Russian people and the Allies into the hands of Germany.



WHERE TSARS WERE BURIED
Church of the Annunciation, Kremlin
Moscow



WHERE TSARS WERE MARRIED
Kremlin, Moscow

This treason did not take place, for before it could be consummated, the Russian people, animated by its purpose of liberation from the economic and political domination of Germany and her agents in Russia, rose in a tempest of revolution and swept aside with one blow the old and pernicious system of bureaucratic misrule and abuse of power. Together with the bureaucracy, autocracy and the last vestiges of monarchism were swept out of existence, and a long and painful chapter of Russia's story was brought to a close. A new sun is now rising over Russia, emerging from beyond the somber clouds of war. Russia has started definitely on her upward course toward Freedom and Democracy.

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

HISTORY OF RUSSIA *By V. Kluchevsky*

ECONOMIC HISTORY OF RUSSIA
By J. Mavor

A THOUSAND YEARS OF RUSSIAN HISTORY
By S. A. Howe

MODERN RUSSIAN HISTORY *By Kornilov*

MODERN RUSSIA *By G. Alexinsky*

SELF-GOVERNMENT IN RUSSIA
By P. Vinogradov

RUSSIA OF THE RUSSIANS
By H. W. Williams

POTENTIAL RUSSIA *By R. W. Childs*

ALL THE RUSSIAS *By Henry Norman*

THE TOURIST'S RUSSIA *By Ruth Kedzie Wood*

* * Information concerning the above books may be had on application to the Editor of The Mentor.

T H E O P E N L E T T E R

Three hundred years of Romanovs, and now, almost "over night," a Republic! Witness a spectacle of vital and absorbing world interest—a reigning family of supreme power suddenly relegated to private life, and the reins of a vast government in the hands of the people. We see the men of the day in Russia facing a colossal task; that of forging a "government of the people, by the people, for the people," out of the old metal of iron-bound monarchism and bureaucratic rule. Already the furnace glows and the molds are taking shape. It is no time for prediction. We shall see what we shall see. But we are told that the men who are shaping Russia's destiny in the dawn of this new day represent unmistakably those elements of the Russian people which alone can lead the country through its problems; and that the strength of these men is not merely transitory, and created by the needs of the occasion. The men themselves may change, but the fundamental things they stand for will endure; Liberty, Democracy, and Economic Progress.

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It is said that a return to the old is impossible. The three hundred years of Romanovs complete a chapter of history. The story of these three hundred years is virtually the story of the Russia that we know. While the records show that Asiatic hordes invaded Russia as far back as seven or eight centuries before the Christian era, there is little to tell of progress or enlightenment until the coming of the Romanovs. Russia in the Middle Ages had its epic poem, "Igor's Expedition," a work of grace, beauty and power. But during the two centuries ending with 1462 the Russian princes were vassals of the Mongols, and in that time all traces of cultivation disappeared. Russian literature, art, and music are all of comparatively recent origin. Peter the Great (1689-1725) laid the corner stone of national Russian literature. Catherine the Great (1761-1796) lent her great influence to the foundation of national music in Russia. Whatever may be our thoughts of the character of the Romanov dynasty or of the monstrous things that some of the Romanovs did, the three hundred years that began with the rule of Michael Feodorovich Romanov in 1613 cover the period of Russia's real growth and progress.

During most of these years Russia was concerned chiefly with her own internal development. Not until recent times has there been any considerable attempt on the part of the Russian to express himself nationally to the rest of the world. Peter the Great and Catherine were seekers. They reached out for all that other nations could give them in politics, literature and art, and developed the fruits of their search for Russia's benefit. If anyone wanted to learn about affairs in Russia, he had to go there and seek information—and not infrequently he got into trouble by doing so. But now, within the last fifty years, Russia's voice has been strong in the Hall of Fame, first in literature, then in music and art. Today, in all these forms of expression, Russia has the attention of the world. Russian literature is studied and discussed in many lands. Tolstoy in literature and religious philosophy holds a place of enduring world interest and importance. Vereshchagin carried the message of Russian art to other nations. Glinka, Tchaikovsky, Rubinstein and Rimsky-Korsakov laid a noble foundation of Russian national music on which many native composers of today are building works of vigor and originality. In every line of achievement we are made constantly aware of the presence of Russia. As Henry Norman has aptly put it, "She moves in every path: she is mining in every claim. To the call of the nations as they peer from their borders, comes ever the reply, 'Who goes there?—Russia.'"

★ ★ ★

We shall cover Russia in several Mentors. In the present number we get the story of Russia in broad, simple outlines from one who is in a full sense qualified to treat the subject. Russian music has already been considered (Mentor No. 118), and we are preparing now for special numbers on Russian art and literature. We have been fortunate in securing a remarkable collection of fine photographs of notable Russian paintings in the galleries of Moscow, Petrograd, and elsewhere. We shall publish them, with an article on Russian art, some time during the fall months. A number on Russian literature will follow.

W.D. Ufford



THE MOUTH OF THE HUDSON NEW YORK HARBOR



NEW YORK HARBOR is one of the most beautiful, largest and best of all the world's great ports. The Upper Bay, or harbor proper, is eight miles long, four-fifths of a mile wide, is completely landlocked, and contains several islands. A great part of New York City lies on Manhattan Island. The Upper Bay communicates,

through the Narrows, with Lower New York Bay, which is protected from the ocean by a sandbar running north from Sandy Hook in New Jersey, eighteen miles away, toward Long Island. This bar is crossed by three channels. Over the bar, about twenty miles south of the south end of Manhattan Island, is the "Main Ship Bayside-Gedney Channel," one thousand feet wide and thirty feet deep. The Ambrose Channel is farther to the east, and about fifteen hundred feet wide and forty deep. The third channel, the South and Swash, is used by coasting vessels drawing about twenty feet.

The Lower Bay, of which Raritan Bay on the southwest, Sandy Hook Bay on the southeast, and Gravesend Bay on the northeast, form parts, and to which the above mentioned channels give entrance from the ocean, has Staten Island to the west and north, Brooklyn to the north and east, and the New Jersey shore to the south and west.

The Upper Bay has an area of about fourteen square miles. Besides being connected with the Lower Bay by the Narrows, one mile wide in the narrowest part, it is joined with Newark Bay to the west by Kill van Kull, immediately to the north of Staten Island.

At the Battery this harbor divides itself into two branches: the Hudson, which is here called the North River, and the East River. The East River is really a strait, connecting New York Bay with Long Island Sound. This is used principally by New England coasting vessels. Its maximum depth is more than one hundred feet. In Hell Gate Channel, the reefs of which were removed in 1885, the depth is about two hundred feet. The length of the East River, which is about three-quarters of a mile wide, is about twenty miles from the Battery to Throg's Neck and Willett's Point, where Long Island Sound proper begins. In the East River are Blackwell's Island, Ward's Island, and Randall's Island. Four great bridges span the East River. The lowest is Brooklyn Bridge, connecting Manhattan with Brooklyn. Just above this is the Manhattan Bridge. Farther up is the Williamsburg Bridge; and crossing from Manhattan over Black-

well's Island to the Borough of Queens, at Long Island City, is the Queensboro Bridge.

Manhattan Island, between the East River and the North, or Hudson River, has a water front of about thirty miles. The North River, the maximum depth of which is sixty feet at New York City, is nearly a mile wide. On the side opposite New York City lies the State of New Jersey. Here are to be found many of the docks of the transatlantic lines. The Hudson River is the great traffic bearer from inland to the port of New York. At this point the river is alive with craft of all kinds.

The narrow approaches to the harbor from the ocean and from Long Island Sound made its fortification an easy task. On Sandy Hook, less than eight miles from the nearest points on Rockaway Beach and Coney Island on the other side of the entrance, is Fort Hancock, garrisoned with artillery. Between the Lower and Upper Bays, on the Narrows, are Fort Wadsworth and Fort Tompkins, on the Staten Island side; and across the Narrows, on the Long Island side, Fort Hamilton. Fort Lafayette is an older fortification, and it stands between Fort Hamilton and Fort Wadsworth, on an artificial island, now used to store ordnance and supplies. Fort Columbus, South Battery and Castle William are all on Governor's Island. The northeastern approach to the harbor, at the entrance of Long Island Sound, is protected by fortifications: Fort Totten, at Willett's Point, and directly across from this, Fort Schuyler, on Throg's Neck.

On Liberty, or Bedloe's Island, in New York Harbor, stands the Statue of Liberty Enlightening the World. This statue, the gift of the people of France to the people of the United States, was designed by Bartholdi, and was set up in 1886. On a granite pedestal 155 feet high, this great bronze figure stands, measuring 151 feet from base to the top of the torch. Just above Liberty Island is Ellis Island, where immigrants land. To the east of Liberty Island lies Governor's Island. In the Lower Bay are the artificial islands, Swinburne and Hoffman, constructed for quarantine stations. ▽





HE first navigators of the Hudson River were the Indians, in their birch bark canoes. For centuries those people had these waters all to themselves. It was not until the beginning of the seventeenth century that white men first made the trip up the river. The ship that made this trip was the *Half Moon*, and its com-

mander was Henry Hudson, an account of whom was given in Mentor No. 13, "The Discoverers." The *Half Moon* entered Lower New York Bay on September 2, 1609. Passing through the Narrows, the vessel entered the Hudson River, on September 12th. The next day Hudson passed Manhattan Island, and the day after he sailed through the Tappan Zee and Haverstraw Bay, and entered the Highlands. On September 15th he got his first glimpse of Newburgh Bay, reaching the site of Catskill on the 16th. By September 19th he had reached the point where later Albany was to stand. From there he sent an exploring boat that went as far as the site of Waterford, just above the junction of the Mohawk River with the Hudson. That was the beginning of navigation on the Hudson.

The Dutch founded New Amsterdam on Manhattan Island, and afterward the English took it away from them and called the place New York. Between the Dutch and English navigators there was almost endless trouble, arising from rival claims to the river and the trade. Through two centuries the river traffic increased steadily. The ships, of course, were at first all sailing vessels; and some of the old captains of these sailing craft became famous. Every village on the river owned a fleet of from five to fifty boats. The captain who made the best runs and carried the biggest freight without loss was counted a hero. Sometimes the river simply sparkled with sails, white and glistening over the water. N. P. Willis has described such a scene:

"One of the prettiest moving dioramas conceivable, is the working through the gorge of the Highlands at West Point of the myriad sailing craft of the river. The sloops which ply the Hudson are remarkable for their picturesque beauty, and for the enormous quantity of sail they carry in all weathers, and nothing is more beautiful than the little fleets of from six to a dozen, all scudding or tacking together, like so many white sea birds on the wing."

One by one the sails disappeared from the Hudson, and now it would be difficult to find many on its waters. To a great extent this has all been due to the inventive genius of one man—Robert Fulton. An account of his life and work was given in Mentor No. 29, "Great American Inventors."

One of the men who believed in Fulton and worked with him was Robert R. Living-

ston, one of the committee that drafted the Declaration of Independence, and the man who administered the oath of office to George Washington, the first president of the United States. Livingston met Fulton when he was in France as American Minister to that country. Their acquaintance began about 1802. They first tried out Fulton's scheme on the River Seine in France, but the boat broke in two and sank.

They then decided to build a larger boat on the Hudson River. Livingston supplied a large amount of the money, although other subscribers were finally interested in the proposition. The vessel was built at the shipyard of Charles Brown, on the East River. At last it was completed and was named the *Clermont*, as a compliment to Livingston, whose manor house at Tivoli on the North Bay was so called. The vessel was 130 feet long, 16 feet wide, and 4 feet deep. It was launched, and then a trial trip was made in the summer of that year. This trial was a great success, and made certain that the use of steam would eventually supplant that of sails in most vessels.

Within a few years many steamboats were running up and down the Hudson. A strange type of craft developed. These were built for speed, and were almost barbaric in their gorgeous display and ornamentation. Each vessel was the pride of the town from which it hailed, and each boat had its band of followers, always ready to argue concerning the merits of their respective craft. So great was the rivalry between various vessels that often, in the excitement of a race, they would omit to stop at the landings for passengers. The first seven steamers to run upon the Hudson were the *Clermont*, the *North River*, the *Car of Neptune*, the *Hope*, the *Perseverance*, the *Paragon* and the *Richmond*.

So the order of sailing changed through the years. First were the white wings of the sailing vessels; then, in Fulton's time, the first steamboat. After that, the great ocean liners, the paddle-wheel excursion and ferryboats, and the sturdy little panting tugs of commerce. Now the traveler finds luxury afloat in noble steamers that sweep by the base of echoing hills with a dignity of presence and majesty of motion that fit well with their surroundings; and by night the inquisitive eye of the searchlight explores with its long, shifting glance the secrets of the sleeping shores.





PALISADE, according to the dictionary, is "a fence made of strong stakes or timbers firmly set in the ground, forming an enclosure." It is easy to see why the famous Palisades of the lower Hudson are so named. In their hexagonal joining they greatly resemble a series of sticks set upright close together in the ground. The

Palisades begin to rise at Piermont, New York, where the Tappan Zee ends. They extend along the west bank of the Hudson for about twenty miles, and their height varies from three hundred to five hundred feet. The Palisades are a lava rock, called trap, which has been intruded as a sheet into the Triassic sandstones, and, on cooling, has developed the prismatic jointing, which is seen in better form at Fingal's Cave in Scotland and the Giant's Causeway in Ireland. The summit of the Palisades is covered to some extent with trees, and the slope to the west is very gentle.

In the old land deeds, the wall of the Palisades was known as the "Great Chip Rock"; but before they were called by this name, the Indians had given them the appellation of "Weh-awk-en." The middle syllable, "awk," meant "rocks that resemble trees." It was a striking and well justified name; and it survived in the name of the town of Weehawken, somewhat further down the river. The old Dutch voyagers on the river called the Palisades "Verdrietegh Hoeck," which means "Grievous Point," because it took so long to pass them, and also because it was dangerous to be becalmed under the cliffs. A vessel might be lying motionless without a breath of wind to move it, when suddenly over the cliffs would come a sharp blow, and striking the sails first, would be likely to turn the ship over.

The Palisades are fascinating in their general outline, and often their color is wonderful. Here and there in the wall may be seen deep rifts cut by small streams, and in these rifts trees have grown, adding the color of their leaves to the general effect. When the sun strikes the Palisades in the morning they are superb; and when, at twilight, the long shadows clothe them in delicate tints, the effect is one of haunting mystery.

Some years ago the beauty of the Palisades was marred by the brush of the advertising painter. This has all been changed now, and commerce is not permitted to disfigure this natural wonder of America.

There used to be at nearly the highest point on the Palisades a jutting piece of rock known as Indian Head. It is said that years ago this point was a favorite lookout station for the red men, and that in the rock, deeply indented, were three holes made by the knees and one hand of generations of Indian watchers. One day,

however, a man whose greed was greater than his appreciation of beauty, thought that this rock would make good stone for roads. Before those interested could intervene, Indian Head had been crushed into gravel. However, the rest of the Palisades have been saved, and in the course of years the foliage will cover the site of the blastings.

It was in connection with the work of saving the Palisades that the Palisades Interstate Park Commission was formed. Back of this Commission is the American Scenic and Historic Preservation Society. After a great deal of work, the Commission secured an appropriation of four hundred thousand dollars from the State of New York and fifty thousand dollars from the State of New Jersey, and with this money Palisades Interstate Park was established. This has a frontage of thirteen miles on the Hudson; comprises at present about twenty-seven thousand acres, and was dedicated in 1909. A total amount of five million dollars is further to be expended on the park in the near future.

Camping under the Palisades is now confined to the district north of Excelsior Landing, which is one mile north of Alpine, New Jersey. The charge for camping is fixed at one dollar per week for the space occupied by the tent. It is estimated that one million people went to the Palisades section of the Interstate Park during the season of 1916. In the same year, 650,000 people came to the Bear Mountain section of the Park. This section is located on the west shore of the Hudson River, about forty-five miles from New York City. On Highland Lake, at Bear Mountain, the commission has installed one hundred and twenty rowboats, free for one-half hour to the public. Many rustic shelters have been erected in the groves on the shores of Hessian Lake, and also a large, covered dancing pavilion. At Bear Mountain Park, the Bear Mountain Inn is operated by the commission, and here everything can be had, from a quick lunch to table d'hôte and the finest à la carte service. Tables are provided in the Inn and in the surrounding groves to which this food may be carried.

General camping is permitted at Bear Mountain Park upon grounds set aside for this purpose at the northerly end of Hessian Lake. Permits are issued at the rate of one dollar for the space occupied by the tent. Firearms are not permitted in any part of Palisades Interstate Park.





EST POINT is known as the Gibraltar of the Hudson. The United States Military Academy there, an account of which has been given in Mentor No. 133, "The Story of the American Army," occupies a plateau 160 feet above the river. It is reached by a roadway cut into the cliff, and commands a view up and down the river

for many miles. West Point is situated on the west bank of the Hudson River, and was first fortified in 1778. In that year a chain of redoubts was erected at strategic points along the Hudson, and West Point was occupied as a military post in January. Here were built several earthwork fortifications, of which Fort Putnam on Mt. Independence, Fort Clinton on the extremity of the point, and Battery Knox, just above the river-landing, were the largest. No actual fighting took place there, however. Benedict Arnold, who was in command of these fortifications in 1780, agreed to deliver them into British hands. Fortunately his treason was discovered in time to save West Point. Afterwards, George Washington made his headquarters there for some time before removing to Newburgh. It was Washington who suggested that West Point be used as a site for a military school.

Several years ago Congress appropriated about \$7,500,000 for improvements to the West Point Academy. A very extensive scheme of reconstruction was put in work. The style employed for all the buildings is what is known as English Perpendicular Gothic, adapted to modern conditions. The older historic structures have been preserved.

The Headquarters Building, with its large tower, is adjoined by the East Academic Building and the Library, which is one of the finest military libraries in existence. This building also contains interesting memorials by the famous sculptor Augustus Saint Gaudens, to J. McNeill Whistler, the artist, and Edgar Allan Poe, the short story writer and poet, both of whom were former cadets at the Academy.

The Parade Ground, where all the military exercises take place, has an area of forty acres. To the left is the West Academic Building, behind which is the Grant or Mess Hall, containing portraits of Grant, Sheridan, Sherman and other officers. The South Cadet Barracks is near the West Academic Building. In the southwest corner of the Parade Ground is a statue of Colonel Sylvanus Thayer, who was superintendent of the Academy from 1817 to 1833. In the northwest angle is the bronze statue erected in 1868 of Major-General John Sedgwick, U. S. Volunteers, who was killed by a sharpshooter on May 9, 1864, while making a personal scouting

expedition at Spottsylvania, Virginia. On the west side of the Parade Ground are additional cadet barracks and the gymnasium, some way back. Nearby is a group of ordnance and store buildings. On the north side, near the flagstaff, is a tall Battle Monument, 78 feet high, surmounted by a statue of Victory by MacMonnies. It was erected in 1874, and is a memorial to the soldiers of the regular army who died in the Civil War.

Above the cliff, to the northeast of the plain, stands Fort Clinton. On the east front of this is a monument erected in 1828 by the Corps of Cadets to Kosciusko, the famous Polish soldier, who, in 1776, entered the army of the United States as a volunteer and brilliantly distinguished himself. He also planned the original fortifications at West Point.

On the east side of the Parade Ground is Cullum Memorial Hall, which was the gift of Major-General Washington Cullum, who was superintendent of the Academy from 1864 to 1866. To the south of it is the Officers' Mess Hall, while directly opposite it is a monument erected in 1845 to Major F. L. Dade's command of 110 men, who were ambushed and killed by the Seminole Indians in Florida in 1835.

The famous so-called "Flirtation Walk" on the river leads to Kosciusko's Garden, a spot frequented by that heroic Pole.

The Officers' Quarters extend along the main road on the plateau, to the north and south of the Academy buildings and the Cadet Barracks. About one mile north of the Academy is the West Point Cemetery, on the east angle of an elevated plain overlooking the river. Here are the remains of Thayer, Winfield Scott, Robert Anderson, and other distinguished soldiers. The Cadet Monument, erected in 1817, stands on the east angle overlooking the river.

Far above the Academy, on Mount Independence, 490 feet high, stands old Fort Putnam. From there may be had a magnificent view in all directions—up and down the Hudson, nearly the whole of the Highlands, Newburgh, and the buildings of the post.

In 1908 Mrs. Russell Sage and Miss Anna B. Warner gave to the Government as a military reservation Constitution Island, which lies directly opposite West Point, and on which are the remains of two forts built during the Revolution.





HERE is probably no other locality in America, taking into account history, tradition, the old church, the manor-house, and the mill, which so entirely conserves the form and spirit of Dutch civilization in the New World." So wrote Dr. Hamilton Wright Mabie of Tarrytown and the Valley of Sleepy Hollow.

It was Washington Irving who preserved many of these traditions and legends for us; and Dr. Mabie was probably thinking of the most famous of all, the Legend of Sleepy Hollow. This Legend tells how Ichabod Crane rushed pell mell from the pursuit of the Headless Horseman, which, rumor had it, lay in wait for luckless travelers along the road in the valley.

A better known legend is that of Rip Van Winkle. Rip—the shiftless, happy-go-lucky individual, with his ragged coat, his gun and dog "Schneider." Driven from home on a stormy night he found somewhere up in the Catskill Mountains a strange band of little men who were playing at bowls. They plied Rip, as we all know, with potent liquor that drugged him into a sleep of twenty years' duration. The story of his awakening, an old white-bearded man, and making his way down to his native village of Falling Water is familiar to most of us from nursery days.

The man who wrote out these legends so that we may read them today, Washington Irving (an account of whose life and work was given in Mentor No. 106, "American Pioneer Prose Writers"), lived at "Sunnyside," Irvington, near Tarrytown on the Hudson. The east end of this famous house is covered with ivy grown from a slip said to have been given to Irving at Abbotsford, by Sir Walter Scott. Another version of the story says that the ivy was brought from Melrose Abbey.

Tarrytown is on the east bank of the Hudson. Its population is about 6,000, and it lies on a sloping hill. Through it goes the broad, winding country highway laid out in 1723 from New York to Albany. This was called the "King's Highway" until the War of Independence, when it was named the "Albany Post Road." Now, in Tarrytown, it is called Broadway.

It was on the Post Road, on September 24, 1780, that three Continental soldiers captured the English Major John André, who, in civilian disguise, was bearing the plans of the fortress at West Point to the British. He was condemned to death as a spy, and hanged on October 2. To commemorate his capture, a marble shaft surmounted by a bronze statue of a Continental soldier has been erected on the spot.

Let us enjoy a little of the flavor of Washington Irving by dipping into that delightful "History of New York by Diedrich Knickerbocker," and reading a bit of Peter Stuyvesant's voyage up the Hudson.

"Thus happily did they pursue their course, until they entered upon those awful defiles denominated the Highlands, where

it would seem that the gigantic Titans had erst waged their impious war with heaven, piling up cliffs on cliffs, and hurling vast masses of rock in wild confusion. But, in sooth, very different is the history of these cloud-capt mountains. These, in ancient days, before the Hudson poured its waters from the lakes, formed one vast prison, within whose rocky bosom the omnipotent Manetho confined the rebellious spirits who repined at his control. Here, bound in adamant chains, or jammed in rifted pines, or crushed by ponderous rocks, they graced for many an age. At length the conquering Hudson, in its career towards the ocean, burst open their prison-house, rolling its tide triumphantly through the stupendous ruins."

Many other venerable legends are associated with this part of the Hudson River. The Tappan Zee, a broad, lakelike expanse of the river, ten miles long and from three to four miles wide, is connected with some of the most interesting. This little sea, that extends between Haverstraw and the Palisades, is a cruising place for ghosts and goblins.

This is the melancholy story of Rambout Van Dam. He lived at Spuyten Duyvil, and learning that there was to be a party at Kakiat, he rowed all the way there one Saturday. He danced and drank and enjoyed himself thoroughly. Midnight came and passed before he knew it. Finally he started home. His companions warned him against the danger of breaking the Sabbath, and urged him not to attempt the trip home. Nevertheless, reckless as ever, he started out, "swearing that he would not land until he had reached Spuyten Duyvil." He has not yet landed; and it is said that he is rowing still all about the Tappan Zee.

Another strange ghost on the Tappan Zee is the Storm-ship. Two hundred years ago this ship was first seen passing New Amsterdam, going up-stream. She flew the Dutch colors. There was a law against a vessel passing up the river without a permit, and a gun from the Battery was fired at her. Strange to say, the cannon ball seemingly passed right through the hull of the ship without doing any damage, and she sailed on. Never did the vessel sail down stream again; but it is said that many a riverman has encountered her in the Tappan Zee. Invariably a severe storm follows her appearance. Always the Storm-ship sails swiftly before a wind that mortal beings cannot feel.

Many are the legends of the Hudson—many the tales of daring deeds and romantic adventure.





ART SCHOOL in art has been defined as "a combination of traditions and methods, a *technique*, a particular feeling in design, a particular sense of color also, all united together to express a common ideal followed by the artists of a given nation at a given time." Samuel Isham, the noted art critic, wrote that if we substitute for

"traditions and methods" a common lack of them, this definition would fit very well the group of painters known as the Hudson River School.

The so-called Hudson River School was a direct outcome of the development of a national spirit in America. This title was given to a group of landscape painters that began by working in the neighborhood of the Hudson. Among them were such men as Thomas Doughty, Thomas Cole, Asher B. Durand, John F. Kensett, T. A. Richards, and the younger men, Cropsey, Bristol, S. R. Gifford, George Inness, F. E. Church, Bierstadt, and McEntee. Still later than the last named came William Bradford, Mignot, Samuel Colman, W. T. Richards, Homer D. Martin, A. H. Wyant, Thomas Moran, and R. S. Gifford.

Not all these men belonged to the Hudson River School, but they were all associated with it. They knew each other more or less intimately, worked together, aided each other, exhibited their works together, and appealed to the same public.

The men of the Hudson River School should be honored for the motive and manner of their inspiration. They went directly to nature, and they studied it with love and pride.

The earliest of these landscape painters was Thomas Doughty, who was born in 1793 and died in 1856. Although Doughty was the earliest, Thomas Cole was the artist who gave this new movement its impetus and helped most to make it popular. He was born in England in 1801, and when nineteen years old came to the United States with his family, settling in Steubenville, Ohio. He was a wanderer by nature, and at length reached Philadelphia, where he studied the pictures in the Academy there. At last he arrived in New York with a number of studies that he had made in the Catskill Mountains and along the Hudson. These came to the notice of Asher B. Durand, who saw in them the work of a talented painter. They were exhibited, and some were purchased. From that time on the success of the artist was assured. He died in 1848.

The younger men of the Hudson River School followed closely the ideals of Cole and Durand. They worked to a great extent out of doors, and copied nature minutely. They gloried in the boundless views of the Hudson Valley as seen

from the mountains. Later on they accompanied the first pioneers into the wilds of the Rockies and the Yellowstone. They were patriotic, and were extremely happy in being the first really native American school of art.

Most of the painters of the Hudson River School studied abroad. They differed from a later generation of artists, however, in that they were already practicing painters before they left America. The later artists went abroad to study first, and on their return began the practice of their art.

John F. Kensett was one of these artists who accepted Durand's point of view and painted American scenery as he found it. He was born in 1818 and died in 1872. He tried to portray nature exactly, but, unlike Durand, worked mainly from drawings and sketches, instead of directly from nature. He had buyers for everything that he wished to sell, and after his death the paintings remaining in his studio were sold for over \$150,000 at public auction in 1873.

William and James McDougall Hart were other members of the Hudson River School. They were both born in Scotland, and were brought to this country later. William Hart, by self-instruction, went from painting carriage panels to doing, first, portraits and later on landscapes. His paintings and those of his brother show a frank and sincere delight in the lovable aspects of nature.

The real pupil and disciple of Thomas Cole was F. E. Church. He was born in 1826 and died in 1900. When he decided to be an artist, his family arranged a meeting with Cole, who agreed to teach him. Both Cole and Church believed that a landscape should be more ennobling than a mere copy of nature. For this reason their choice of landscape subjects were the nobler scenes of nature, such as Niagara Falls, tropical forests, icebergs, and volcanoes.

Associated with Church in this work was Albert Bierstadt, who was born in Germany in 1830 and died at New York in 1902.

Another man of note who might also be included in the Hudson River School was Thomas Moran. He came later, but he surely should be included, for the work of the Hudson River School of painters influenced him to a great extent.